

A Model Analysis of Arterial Oxygen Desaturation during Apnea in Preterm Infants

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Abstract

Rapid arterial O₂ desaturation during apnea in the preterm infant has obvious clinical implications but to date no adequate explanation for why it exists. Understanding the factors influencing the rate of arterial O₂ desaturation during apnea ($\dot{S}a_{O_2}$) is complicated by the non-linear O₂ dissociation curve, falling pulmonary O₂ uptake, and by the fact that O₂ desaturation is biphasic, exhibiting a rapid phase (stage 1) followed by a slower phase when severe desaturation develops (stage 2). Using a mathematical model incorporating pulmonary uptake dynamics, we found that elevated metabolic O₂ consumption accelerates $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ throughout the entire desaturation process. By contrast, the remaining factors have a restricted temporal influence: low pre-apneic alveolar P_{O₂} causes an early onset of desaturation, but thereafter has little impact; reduced lung volume, hemoglobin content or cardiac output, accelerates $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 1, and finally, total blood O₂ capacity (blood volume and hemoglobin content) alone determines $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 2. Preterm infants with elevated metabolic rate, respiratory depression, low lung volume, impaired cardiac reserve, anemia, or hypovolemia, are at risk for rapid and profound apneic hypoxemia. Our insights provide a basic physiological framework that may guide clinical interpretation and design of interventions for preventing sudden apneic hypoxemia.

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Introduction

Apnea and its accompanying arterial O₂ desaturation are common clinical complications in preterm infants, occurring in more than 50% of very low birth weight infants [1]. In preterm infants, apnea causes a reduction in heart rate [2] and cerebral perfusion [3], often requires mechanical ventilation, and is associated with neurodevelopmental impairment [4]. Apnea-related hypoxemia is of major concern in light of evidence that repetitive hypoxia in newborn animals results in irreversibly-altered carotid body function [5], raising the possibility of impaired ventilatory control, and causes neurocognitive and behavioural deficits [6]. Respiratory arrest and hypoxemia are also strongly implicated in sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS) [7,8] where the speed at which hypoxemia develops is considered to be particularly dangerous.

In preterm infants, the rate of arterial O₂ desaturation ($\dot{S}a_{O_2}$) can be highly variable and rapid, with average rates as high as 4.3% s⁻¹ during isolated apneas [9]. An earlier framework to describe $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ proposed that metabolic O₂ consumption relative to alveolar volume determines the speed at which alveolar P_{O₂} falls [10]; it was envisaged that $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is then a function of falling P_{O₂} and the slope of the oxy-hemoglobin dissociation curve. However, such a model assumes that the rate of alveolar depletion of O₂, denoted pulmonary O₂ uptake ($\dot{V}p_{O_2}$), is equal to tissue O₂ consumption during apnea (see Methods – Theory). Previous

studies in adults have shown that $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ falls from metabolic consumption during apnea [11], and our previous modeling studies in lambs showed that the difference between $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ and metabolic O₂ consumption has a crucial role in determining $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during recurrent apneas [12]. We found that apneic changes in $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ cause desaturation to occur in 2 stages. During stage 1, lung O₂ stores are depleted, and $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ falls below metabolic consumption. During stage 2, $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ is close to zero, and tissue O₂ needs are provided by depletion of blood O₂ stores.

To date, no complete theoretical analysis of the factors influencing desaturation during apnea has been published. The only available study [13] has a number of critical limitations. First, the model incorporated a constraint of a fixed difference between $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ and mixed-venous saturation; thus dynamic changes in $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ could not occur and their influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ could not be examined. Second, no assessment was made of the impact of cardiorespiratory factors on the two stages of O₂ desaturation. Third, in focusing on adults, the study did not examine profound desaturation to levels well below 60% as can often occur in preterm infants [9,14].

Accordingly, the aim of the current study was to quantify the importance of cardiorespiratory factors relevant to $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea, with particular reference to the preterm infant. Using a model that permits variation of $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ during apnea, we examine a number of factors known to influence $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$, such as lung volume [15], metabolic O₂ consumption [16] and pre-apneic arterial oxygenation [17] as well as factors that are particularly pertinent for

Author Summary

When breathing stops, the flow of O₂ into and the flow of CO₂ out of the body cease. Such an event, termed an apnea, can be especially dangerous in preterm infants in whom it can lead to a rapid decline in arterial O₂ saturation, reaching rates of 3–8% per second, rapidly reducing O₂ to a level that could lead to neurological damage. Despite extensive experimental research, we have a poor mechanistic understanding of the causes of rapidly developing hypoxemia. We describe a new mathematical model that allows examination of the importance of the major cardiorespiratory factors that are likely to influence the speed at which arterial hypoxemia worsens during apnea. We found that high metabolic rate as well as reduced pre-apneic ventilation, lung volume, cardiac output, hemoglobin content, blood O₂ affinity, and blood volume accelerate the development of hypoxemia during apnea. Importantly, the cardiorespiratory factors that contribute to rapid hypoxemia are all pertinent to the preterm infant during early postnatal development. Thus the newborn is highly susceptible to rapid and severe desaturation, potentially explaining the propensity of preterm infants, particularly those with apnea, to neurological impairment.

the developing newborn, including anemia, hypovolemia, reduced O₂ affinity, and chronically and acutely reduced cardiac output. We use the results to develop a conceptual framework for the interpretation of mechanisms underlying rapid $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea.

Results

Overview of the two-compartment model for gas exchange

To determine the independent influence of clinically relevant cardiorespiratory factors on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during a single isolated apnea, we used a two-compartment lung-body mathematical model which incorporated realistic blood O₂ stores and gas exchange dynamics (Figure 1), as described in Methods – Mathematical model (a full list of symbols is provided in Table 1). We used published parameters for healthy preterm infants born at ~30 wk gestational age (Table 2); the values represent measurements taken at approximately term equivalent age when surprisingly rapid desaturation has been observed [9]. We also derive analytic solutions for $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to quantify the importance of cardiorespiratory factors on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to obtain a detailed view of the arterial O₂ desaturation process, as described in Methods – Theory.

Pulmonary gas exchange dynamics during apnea

To examine changes in O₂/CO₂ exchange during apnea, a single apnea was imposed on the model. During apnea, changes in alveolar O₂ and CO₂ stores are not constant (Figure 2); importantly, alveolar P_{O₂} (P_{A_{O₂}) did not continue to fall at its initial rate as governed by metabolic O₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}), but instead the rate of fall in P_{A_{O₂} was reduced as it approached mixed venous P_{O₂} (P \bar{V}_{O_2}), an observation also reflected in the falling $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$. As a result, two distinct phases for O₂ depletion can be seen, which we refer to as stage 1 and stage 2 [12]. During stage 1, P_{A_{O₂} fell rapidly and $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ decreased and became dissociated from \dot{V}_{O_2} ; during stage 2, with $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ greatly reduced, both P_{A_{O₂} and P \bar{V}_{O_2} fell together at a reduced rate. The two distinct phases were also observed for alveolar and arterial P_{CO₂} (P_{A_{CO₂}, P_{A_{CO₂}) although stage 1 for CO₂ was substantially shorter than that for O₂. Such an}}}}}}

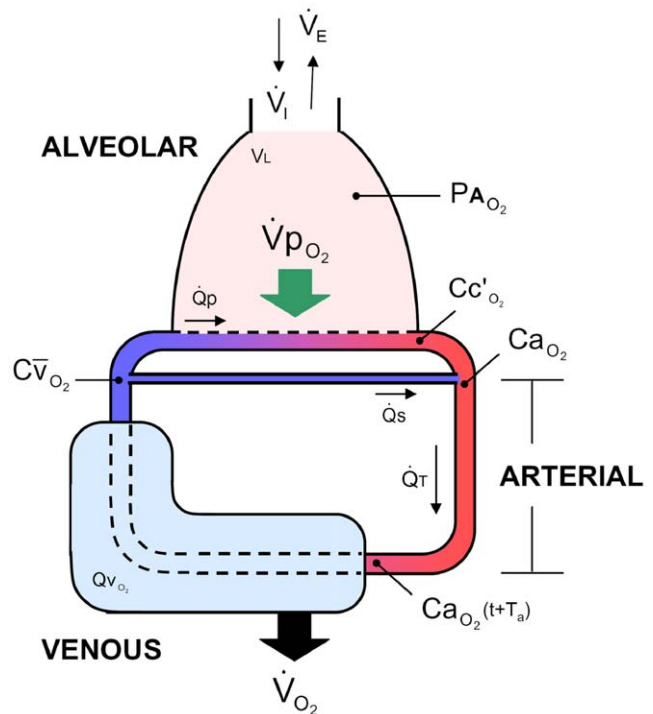


Figure 1. Model schematic representing O₂ uptake, transport and consumption. O₂ stores are represented by the alveolar, arterial, and venous compartments. Two dynamically-independent levels of O₂ uptake are denoted: pulmonary O₂ uptake ($\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$) and metabolic consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}). R-L shunt is also included. T_a is the arterial transit time. Symbols are described in Table 1. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g001

effect results from the earlier fall in pulmonary CO₂ uptake ($\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$) relative to the fall in $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ (Figure 2A) and is reflected in the reduction in respiratory exchange ratio ($\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}/\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$) (Figure 2B). Consequently, a more rapid fall in P_{A_{O₂} was observed compared with the rise in P_{A_{CO₂} (see Methods – Derivation of equations), such that P_{A_{O₂} fell by 100 mmHg in the time P_{A_{CO₂} rose by just 14 mmHg (Figure 2C).}}}}

Time-course of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea

The time-course of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is complex (Figure 3), a consequence of the nonlinear O₂-dissociation curve in combination with the fall in $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$. At apnea onset, $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ started to fall with a rate equivalent to that predicted by Equation 12, where $\dot{S}a_{O_2} = 0.5\% s^{-1}$ (Figure 3). During apnea, changes in the slope of the O₂-dissociation curve ($\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$) and $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ dominated the time-course of desaturation as hypoxemia progressed. As $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ started to fall after apnea onset, $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$ increased with little change in $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$, resulting in a proportional increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. However, as arterial hypoxemia developed, there was a concurrent decline in $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$. As $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is directly proportional to the product $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} \times \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ (Equation 11) it follows that during apnea, the peak $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ of 3.5% s^{-1} occurred when $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} \times \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ reached a maximum. This occurred when neither $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ nor $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$ was at its maximum (both ~50% of peak). Finally, with $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ greatly reduced during stage 2, $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ remained at a constant level ($\dot{S}a_{O_2} = 1.7\% s^{-1}$), close to that predicted by Equation 13 (1.8% s^{-1}).

Factors influencing $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$

The following parameters were individually varied from their ‘normal’ values to quantify their influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$: resting P_{A_{O₂},}

Table 1. Mathematical symbols.

Symbol	Description
C_{aCO_2}	Arterial CO ₂ content
C_{aO_2}	Arterial O ₂ content
C'_{cCO_2}	End-capillary arterial CO ₂ content
C'_{cO_2}	End-capillary arterial O ₂ content
$C\bar{V}_{CO_2}$	Mixed venous CO ₂ content
$C\bar{V}_{O_2}$	Mixed venous O ₂ content
$\dot{C}\bar{V}_{CO_2}$	Rate of change in mixed venous CO ₂ content
$\dot{C}\bar{V}_{O_2}$	Rate of change in mixed venous O ₂ content
FI_{O_2}	Fractional inspired O ₂
F_s	R-L pulmonary shunt fraction (\dot{Q}_p/\dot{Q}_T)
Hb	Hemoglobin content of blood
P_0	Barometric pressure, including conversion from STP to BTP, 863 mmHg
P_{50}	O ₂ partial pressure at 50% saturation
P_{O_2}	O ₂ partial pressure
P_{aCO_2}	Arterial CO ₂ partial pressure
P_{aO_2}	Arterial O ₂ partial pressure
P_{ACO_2}	Alveolar CO ₂ partial pressure
P_{AN_2}	Alveolar N ₂ partial pressure
P_{AO_2}	Alveolar O ₂ partial pressure
P_{vap}	Alveolar water vapour partial pressure, 47 mmHg
P_B	Barometric pressure, 760 mmHg
P'_{cCO_2}	End-capillary CO ₂ partial pressure
P'_{cO_2}	End-capillary O ₂ partial pressure
$P_{I_{CO_2}}$	Inspired CO ₂ partial pressure
$P_{I_{N_2}}$	Inspired N ₂ partial pressure
$P_{I_{O_2}}$	Inspired O ₂ partial pressure
$P\bar{V}_{O_2}$	Mixed venous O ₂ partial pressure
$P\bar{V}_{CO_2}$	Mixed venous CO ₂ partial pressure
\dot{P}_{ACO_2}	Rate of change in alveolar CO ₂ partial pressure
\dot{P}_{AN_2}	Rate of change in alveolar N ₂ partial pressure
\dot{P}_{AO_2}	Rate of change in alveolar O ₂ partial pressure
Q_a	Arterial volume
Q_b	Blood volume
Q_{bCO_2}	Blood volume for CO ₂
Q_{bO_2}	Blood volume for O ₂
Q_v	Venous (and tissue) volume
Q_{VCO_2}	Venous (and tissue) volume for CO ₂
Q_{VO_2}	Venous (and tissue) volume for O ₂
\dot{Q}_T	Cardiac output
\dot{Q}_p	Pulmonary blood flow
RER	Respiratory exchange ratio ($\dot{V}_{PCO_2}/\dot{V}_{PO_2}$)
S_{O_2}	O ₂ saturation
\dot{S}_{aO_2}	Arterial O ₂ saturation
S'_{cO_2}	End-capillary arterial O ₂ saturation
$S\bar{V}_{O_2}$	Mixed venous O ₂ saturation
\dot{S}_{aO_2}	Rate of arterial O ₂ desaturation
$\dot{S}_{aO_2}^{10s}$	Average \dot{S}_{aO_2} from t=0–10 s during apnea

Table 1. Cont.

Symbol	Description
$\dot{S}_{aO_2}^{peak}$	Peak instantaneous ('linear') \dot{S}_{aO_2} during apnea; stage 1
$\dot{S}_{aO_2}^{stage 2}$	\dot{S}_{aO_2} during stage 2
$\dot{S}\bar{V}_{O_2}$	Rate of mixed-venous O ₂ desaturation
T_a	Arterial transit time
V_L	Lung volume
\dot{V}_{CO_2}	Metabolic CO ₂ production
\dot{V}_{O_2}	Metabolic O ₂ consumption
\dot{V}_E	Expired alveolar ventilation
\dot{V}_I	Inspired alveolar ventilation
\dot{V}_{PCO_2}	Pulmonary CO ₂ uptake (from capillary to alveoli)
\dot{V}_{PO_2}	Pulmonary O ₂ uptake (from alveoli to capillary)
$\dot{V}_{p_{total}}$	Net pulmonary gas uptake from alveoli to capillary
β_{bCO_2}	Capacitance co-efficient of blood for CO ₂
β_{bO_2}	Capacitance co-efficient of blood for O ₂ relating changes in P'_{cO_2} to changes in C'_{cO_2}
β_{HbO_2}	Capacitance co-efficient of hemoglobin for O ₂ ; slope of the O ₂ -dissociation curve relating changes in P'_{cO_2} to changes in S'_{cO_2}

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lung volume (V_L), metabolic O₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}), blood hemoglobin content (Hb), cardiac output (\dot{Q}_T), R-L shunt fraction (F_s), and the P_{O_2} at 50% saturation (P_{50}). All other parameters were kept constant to remove confounding effects, unless specified otherwise.

To quantify \dot{S}_{aO_2} we used 3 different measures. First, since apnea is considered clinically significant if it lasts for >10 s and is accompanied by bradycardia or O₂ desaturation [18], we calculated the average rate of fall in \dot{S}_{aO_2} between apnea onset and 10 s later ($\dot{S}_{aO_2}^{10s}$); such a measure describes the immediacy of onset of desaturation and is analogous to the practical measurement of average \dot{S}_{aO_2} used in many clinical studies [9,15,19,20]. Second, we determined the peak instantaneous \dot{S}_{aO_2} during apnea

Table 2. Typical parameters for the preterm infant at term equivalent age.

Parameter	Value	Reference/s
Lung volume (V_L)	20 ml kg ⁻¹	[31,54]
Metabolic O ₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2})	10 ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹	[55,39,40]
Cardiac output (\dot{Q}_T)	250 ml min ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹	[56]
Hemoglobin content (Hb)	8 g dl ⁻¹	[22]
P_{50}	24 mmHg	[22]
Blood volume (Qb)	80 ml kg ⁻¹	[57]

P_{50} is the partial pressure at 50% saturation. V_L is taken from data on functional residual capacity. For all simulations unless otherwise stated: respiratory exchange ratio (RER) was assumed to be 0.8; shunt fraction (F_s) was adjusted to 8.7% to achieve a resting P_{aO_2} of 72 mmHg as is typical for normal healthy infants [58]; resting alveolar ventilation ($\dot{V}_I = 168$ ml min⁻¹ kg⁻¹ under normal conditions) was set to achieve resting $P_{AO_2} = 100$ mmHg.

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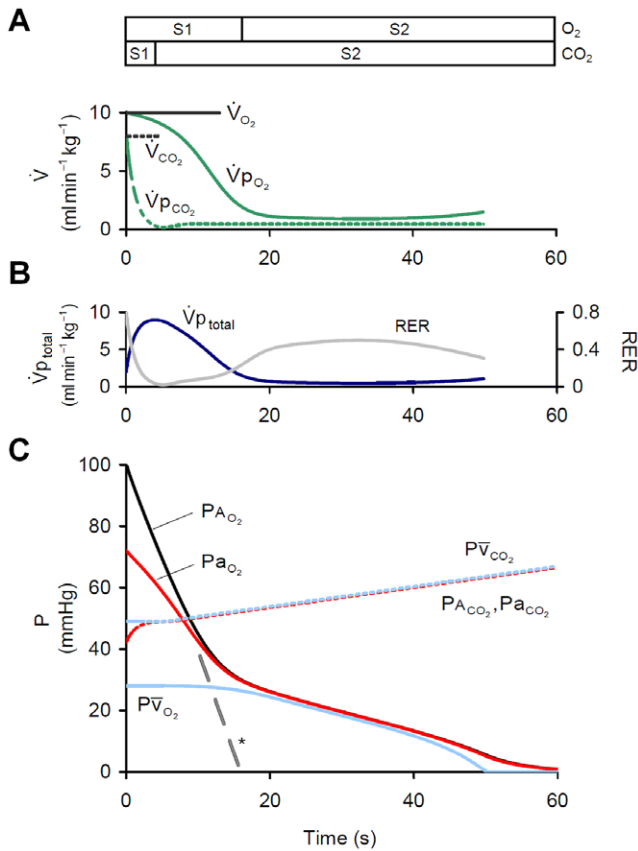


Figure 2. Pulmonary gas exchange during apnea. (A) Rate of pulmonary O₂/CO₂ exchange. $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ and $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$ fall from resting levels during apnea. (B) Net alveolar-capillary gas uptake ($\dot{V}_{p_{total}} = \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} - \dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$) and respiratory exchange ratio ($RER = \dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}} / \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$) during apnea. (C) Changes in alveolar, arterial and mixed venous P_{O₂}/P_{CO₂} during apnea. Contrast the time-course in P_{A_{O₂}} and P_{A_{CO₂}} as they fall/rise towards P_{V_{O₂}}/P_{V_{CO₂}}. (*) represents the fall in P_{A_{O₂}} if $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ was assumed equal to \dot{V}_{O_2} . S1 = stage 1; S2 = stage 2. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g002

($\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$), the value during the linear portion of arterial desaturation [10,21] which we find is not confounded by resting $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. Third, we report a measure of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 2 apnea ($\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$). To quantify the sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in each cardiorespiratory factor, we defined the term impact ratio as the ratio of proportional increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to a small increase from the normal value of each factor. For example, an impact ratio of 1 indicates a one-to-one increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ with an increase in the factor, and a negative ratio indicates an inverse relationship. The impact of each cardiorespiratory factor on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$, $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$, and $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$ is summarised in Table 3.

Resting P_{A_{O₂}}. Changes in P_{A_{O₂}}, achieved via reduced resting ventilation or increasing inspired O₂ (F_{I_{O₂}}), had a substantial effect on the onset of desaturation. Reduced pre-apneic P_{A_{O₂}} dramatically increased $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ (Figure 4A), but had little effect on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$ or $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$. In contrast, increasing pre-apneic P_{A_{O₂}} with the application of supplemental O₂ achieved the opposite, essentially right-shifting or delaying the arterial desaturation curve, where one second of delay can be achieved by an increase in P_{I_{O₂}} ($\Delta P_{I_{O_2}}$) of ~7 mmHg, or $\Delta F_{I_{O_2}}$ of ~1% (see Methods – Derivation of equations). These results occurred despite only a minor influence being visible on resting $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. For example, a reduction of P_{A_{O₂}} from 100 to 60 mmHg caused a 6% reduction in resting $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ but at the

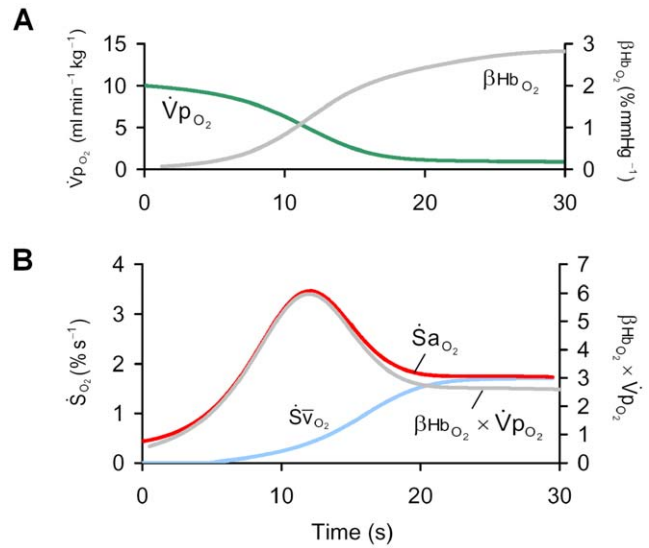


Figure 3. The time course of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea. Panel (A) shows the increase in the slope of the oxy-hemoglobin dissociation curve at the level of alveolar P_{O₂} ($\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$), and the fall in pulmonary oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$) that occurs during apnea. Panel (B) shows that changes in the product $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} \times \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ explain the time course of the instantaneous slope of arterial O₂ desaturation ($\dot{S}a_{O_2}$) during apnea. Note that the peak $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ occurs when $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ is substantially less than its resting value. Note also that the rate of fall of mixed-venous saturation ($\dot{S}v_{O_2}$) and $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ become equal and constant after 20 s. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g003

same time led to a more than 2-fold elevation in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ (Figure 4B). Additionally, a severe reduction in P_{A_{O₂}}, to below 70 mmHg, was required to elevate $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$.

Lung volume (V_L) and blood volume (Q_b). $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ and $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$ were inversely related to V_L during stage 1 (Figure 5A, B), but changes in V_L had no influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$. In direct contrast, reduced Q_b strongly increased $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$, but had no effect on stage

Table 3. Impact ratios describing the effect of cardiorespiratory factors on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$.

Parameter alteration	$\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$	$\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$	$\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$
Resting P _{A_{O₂}}	-3.97	-0.35	-0.01
Lung volume (V _L)	-2.24	-0.82	-0.09
Blood volume (Q _b)	-0.01	-0.06	-0.68
O ₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}) ^{CC}	+2.29	+1.00	+1.00
O ₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}) ^{nCC}	+2.73	+1.92	+1.00
Hemoglobin content (Hb) ^{nCC}	-0.38	-1.00	-0.89
Hemoglobin content (Hb) ^{CC}	+0.01	-0.10	-0.89
P ₅₀	+1.37	-0.68	-0.11
Cardiac output (\dot{Q}_T , resting)	-0.39	-0.90	0.00
Cardiac output (\dot{Q}_T , transient)	+1.45	-0.06	0.00
Shunt Fraction (F _s)	-0.01	+0.01	0.00

Impact ratio is defined as the ratio of proportional increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to the proportional increase in each factor, based on small changes around normal values. An impact ratio of 1 indicates a one-to-one increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ with an increase in the factor, and a negative ratio indicates an inverse relationship. CC = cardiac compensated, nCC = cardiac uncompensated. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.t003

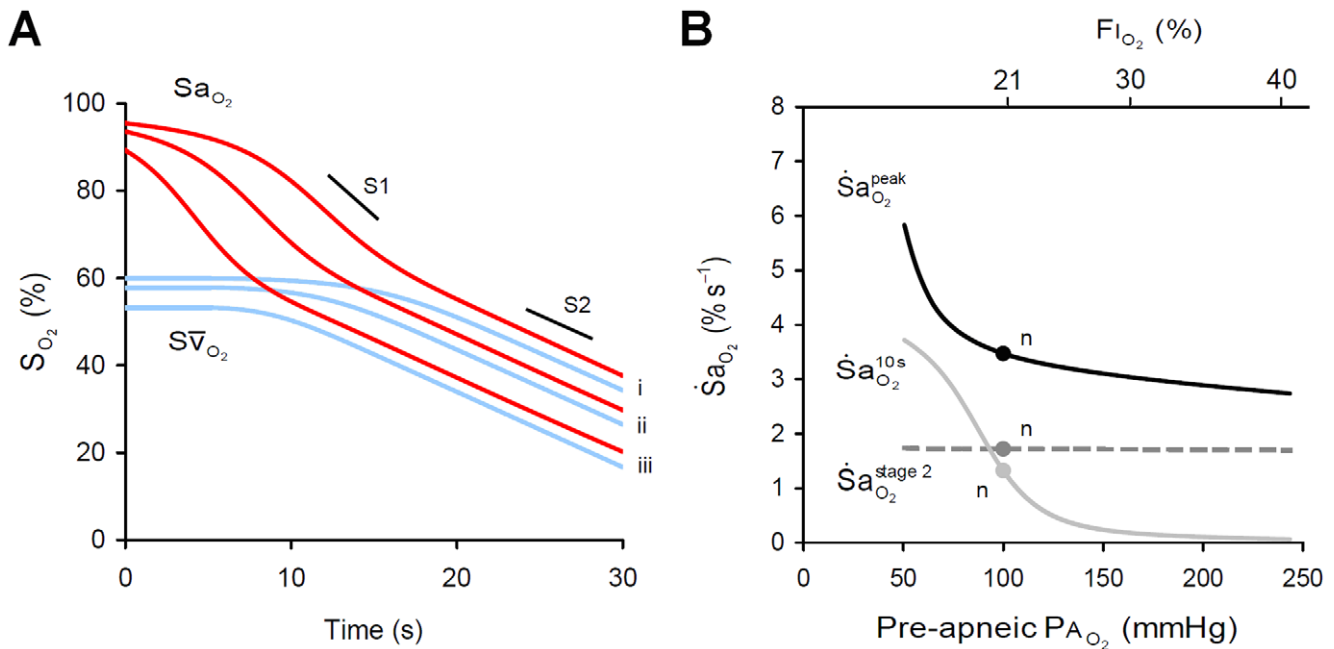


Figure 4. Impact of pre-apneic alveolar P_{O₂} (ventilation, supplemental O₂) on Ḡa_{O₂}. (A) Effect of three levels of alveolar P_{O₂} (P_{A_{O₂}), (i) 100 mmHg, (ii) 80 mmHg and (iii) 60 mmHg, on arterial (Sa_{O₂}) and mixed venous (Sv̄_{O₂}) O₂ desaturation during apnea. Note that arterial O₂ desaturation is substantially right-shifted with increased P_{A_{O₂}. (B) Sensitivity of Ḡa_{O₂} to changes in pre-apneic P_{A_{O₂} (F_{I,O₂}). Note that reduced P_{A_{O₂} has a major impact on Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s} but little impact on Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak}; the influence on Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} is small in the normal range but becomes stronger at low P_{A_{O₂}. n = 'normal' values; S1, stage 1 slope; S2, stage 2 slope. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g004}}}}}

1 desaturation as reflected in no change in Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} or Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s} (Figure 5C, D).

Metabolic O₂ consumption (Ḡ_{O₂}). To examine the impact of changing Ḡ_{O₂} on Ḡa_{O₂}, independent of resting Sv̄_{O₂}, Ḡ_{O₂} was adjusted to maintain resting Sv̄_{O₂} constant, where $\Delta\dot{Q}T(\%) = \Delta\dot{V}_{O_2}(\%)$; we refer to this procedure as 'cardiac compensation'. Under this condition, elevated Ḡ_{O₂} caused a directly proportional increase in Sa_{O₂} throughout stages 1 and 2 (Figure 6A, B). Without cardiac compensation, the effect of increased Ḡ_{O₂} on Sa_{O₂} during stage 1 was magnified, as shown by the further increase in Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} (Figure 6A, B).

Hemoglobin content (Hb) and oxygen affinity (P₅₀). Reduced hemoglobin content (Hb) increased Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} and Ḡa_{O₂}^{stage 2} but had little effect on Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s} (Figure 7A, B). The increase in Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} occurred with an increase in the peak of the product βHb_{o₂} × Ḡp_{O₂} as Ḡp_{O₂} was higher at each level of Sa_{O₂}. The simulation was repeated with cardiac compensation for the reduction in hemoglobin content, where $\Delta\dot{Q}T(\%) = 1/\Delta Hb(\%)$, to maintain constant resting Sv̄_{O₂}. Following such compensation, no changes in Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} or Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s} were observed but reduced Hb continued to increase Ḡa_{O₂}^{stage 2}. In examining the influence of P₅₀, P₉₀ was adjusted in equal proportion on the basis of published data [22]. Increased P₅₀ increased the immediate Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s}, increased Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s}, decreased Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} and had no effect on Ḡa_{O₂}^{stage 2} (Figure 7C, D).

Cardiac output (Ḡ_T). Reduced resting Ḡ_T increased Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak}, but had little impact on Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s} or Ḡa_{O₂}^{stage 2} (Figure 8A, B). As with Hb, the increase in Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} with reduced resting Ḡ_T occurred with an increase in the peak of the product βHb_{o₂} × Ḡp_{O₂}. To differentiate between the influence on Ḡa_{O₂} of an acute reduction in cardiac output, i.e. when bradycardia accompanies apnea, rather than a chronic reduction, we reduced cardiac output in a step-wise manner from the baseline value at the time of apnea onset. In contrast to the effect of reduced resting Ḡ_T, a transient

reduction in Ḡ_T decreased Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s}, but had a negligible impact on Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak} or Ḡa_{O₂}^{stage 2} (Figure 8C, D).

Resting R-L shunt fraction (F_s). Increased F_s reduced resting Sa_{O₂} and Sv̄_{O₂} but had no effect on Ḡa_{O₂}^{10s}, Ḡa_{O₂}^{peak}, or Ḡa_{O₂}^{stage 2} (Figure 9A, B).

Discussion

Our model analysis of the rate of arterial O₂ desaturation during apnea demonstrates that pre-apneic ventilation, lung volume, cardiac output, hemoglobin content and blood volume exert unique effects on Ḡa_{O₂} throughout the time-course of desaturation, while metabolic O₂ consumption is uniformly influential throughout the process. Our analysis reveals that lung volume and the slope of the O₂-dissociation curve are important early in the process, during what we refer to as stage 1 [12], but not stage 2. For the first time, our study reveals that reduced cardiac output and hemoglobin content, and as a consequence resting mixed-venous saturation, substantially accelerate peak Ḡa_{O₂}. Finally, low blood volume and hemoglobin content, and therefore a low total blood O₂ capacity, increase the speed of desaturation, but only in stage 2. In addition to infants with elevated metabolic needs and low lung volume, those with anemia, cardiac dysfunction, or hypovolemia, which are common complications of prematurity, are at heightened risk of rapid and profound arterial desaturation during apnea.

Methodological considerations

To evaluate the independent effects of cardiorespiratory factors on Ḡa_{O₂} we used a two-compartment model, incorporating both alveolar and blood gas stores. The inclusion of a realistic blood store was crucial to reveal that changes in Ḡp_{O₂} occur as a consequence of arterial and mixed-venous saturation falling

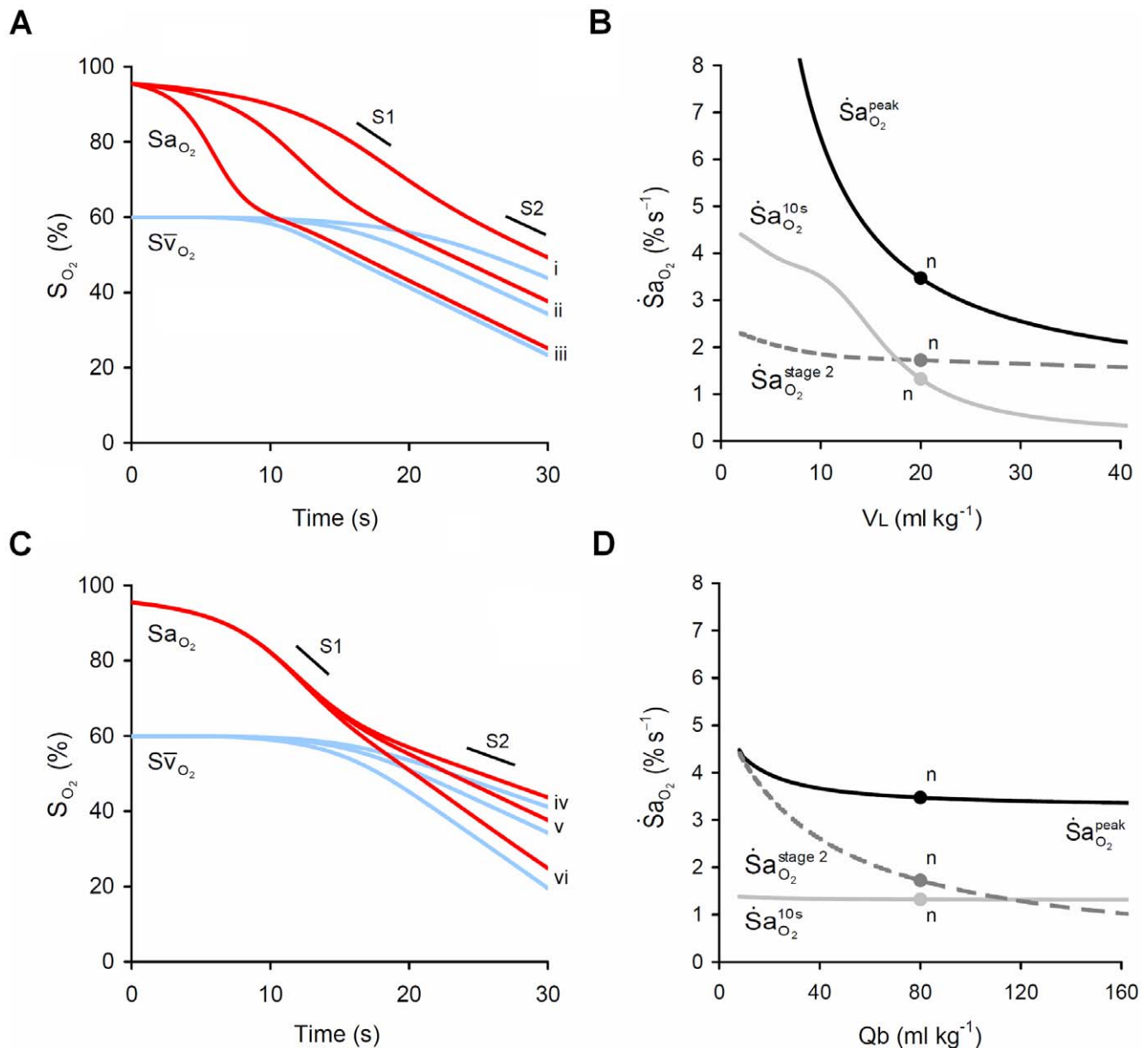


Figure 5. Impact of lung volume (V_L) and blood volume (Q_b) on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. (A) Effect of three levels of V_L , (i) 30, (ii) 20 and (iii) 10 $ml\ kg^{-1}$, on arterial (Sa_{O_2}) and mixed venous ($S\bar{v}_{O_2}$) O₂ desaturation during apnea. (B) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in V_L . Note that reduced V_L has a strong impact on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$ and $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ but no impact on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2}$. (C) Effect of three levels of Q_b , (iv) 120, (v) 80 and (vi) 40 $ml\ kg^{-1}$, on Sa_{O_2} and $S\bar{v}_{O_2}$ during apnea. (D) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in Q_b . Note that reduced Q_b has little impact on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$ or $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ but has a large impact on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2}$. n = 'normal' values; S1, stage 1 slope; S2, stage 2 slope.
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asynchronously during apnea (Figure 3). Our approach allowed us to extend the previous framework based on the assumption of constant $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ [23], which prevented the recognition that a steep O₂-dissociation curve and low lung volume do not accelerate $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ beyond stage 1. Furthermore, the varying $\dot{V}p_{O_2}$ permitted recognition that cardiac output, hemoglobin content, and blood volume have a major influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$.

In the current study, the typical value of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ found using our model was $3.5\% s^{-1}$ whereas Poets and Southall [9] using beat-by-beat oximetry in preterm infants reported a mean value for $\dot{S}a_{O_2} = 4.3\% s^{-1}$ during isolated apneas. Reasons for our lower value may lie with our simplifying assumptions. Notably, we assumed a homogenous lung compartment and complete gas

mixing and as such, the model incorporated neither limitation of alveolar-capillary diffusion nor an uneven ventilation-perfusion distribution, two factors that could cause an increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. In addition, we assumed a constant lung volume during apnea, equal to published values of functional residual capacity, whereas it is known that lung volume can fall during apnea [15,24]; based on our data, a fall in lung volume to $15.5\ ml\ min^{-1}\ kg^{-1}$ immediately after apnea onset would achieve $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ of $4.3\% s^{-1}$ (Figure 5B).

A final assumption implicit in our model is that all O₂ transfer to the blood occurs via the pulmonary circulation. However, in very preterm infants there is evidence of percutaneous respiration in the first few days of life in both room air and with supplemental O₂ [25]. With whole body exposure of 90% O₂ to the newborn skin, it

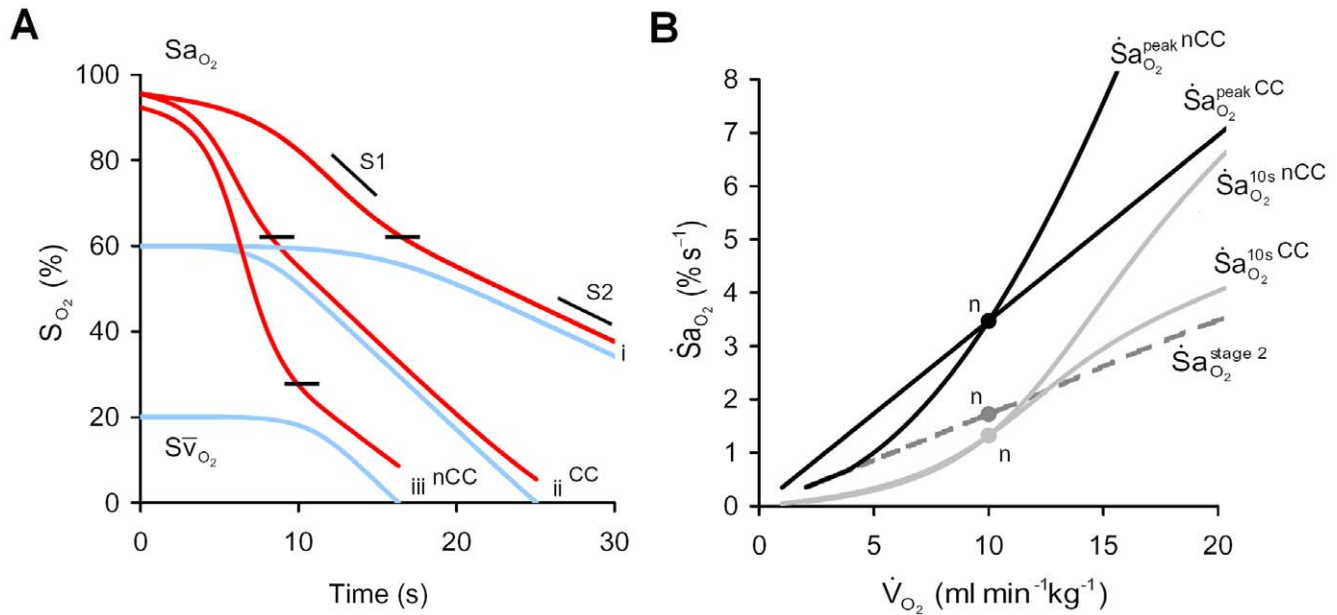


Figure 6. Impact of metabolic O₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}) on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. Panel (A) shows the effect of doubling \dot{V}_{O_2} on arterial (Sa_{O_2}) and mixed venous (Sv_{O_2}) O₂ during apnea; (i) 10 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹, (ii) 20 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹ with cardiac compensation (CC), and (iii) 20 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹ with no CC (nCC). Note that with CC, increased \dot{V}_{O_2} , from (i) to (ii), elevated $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ uniformly at all levels of Sa_{O_2} during both stages 1 and 2; note that the level of Sa_{O_2} at the inflection point (shown by short black lines) is unchanged. With nCC (iii), increased \dot{V}_{O_2} caused a reduced resting Sv_{O_2} and lower Sa_{O_2} inflection, and greater $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 1, compared to (ii). (B) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in \dot{V}_{O_2} . Note that with increased \dot{V}_{O_2} : a uniform increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$ occurred with CC, and a more-than-proportional increase was seen with nCC; $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ is elevated in both cases, but more so with nCC; a uniform increase in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage 2}$ is shown regardless of CC. n = 'normal' values; S1, stage 1 slope; S2, stage 2 slope.
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has been calculated that $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ can be reduced by 8–10% [26], likely via an increased resting mixed-venous saturation; our study demonstrates that such an effect would decrease $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea.

Pulmonary gas exchange dynamics during apnea

Our study is consistent with previous observations that $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ and $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$ rapidly decline during apnea from their steady-state values [11], with $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$ falling faster than $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$. The relatively low blood capacitance for O₂ compared with that for CO₂ results in the resting alveolar–mixed-venous partial pressure difference being ~12-fold greater for O₂ than for CO₂. Consequently, when apnea begins ~12 times more O₂ than CO₂ must diffuse across the lung to obliterate the alveolar–mixed-venous partial pressure difference. The slower fall in $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ vs. $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$ provides for a faster depletion of alveolar O₂ vs. CO₂ stores; such an effect results in complete desaturation of arterial blood in the time P_{aCO_2} rises by just 14 mmHg. These findings lead us to conclude that short-term O₂ homeostasis is more unstable than CO₂ homeostasis and thus that the danger of isolated apneas in infants is likely to be mediated via hypoxemia rather than hypercapnia.

Factors influencing $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$

Our study provides for the first time a comprehensive analysis of the factors that determine arterial desaturation during apnea in preterm infants. We show that resting oxygenation in the form of alveolar P_{O₂} has the greatest influence on desaturation at apnea onset. When apnea begins at an increasingly lower alveolar P_{O₂}, $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ more quickly reaches its maximum because P_{O₂} rapidly arrives at the steepest part of the O₂-dissociation curve. This effect explains the inverse relationship between mean $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ and pre-apneic Sa_{O_2} during apnea [17], but as we show the peak slope

itself is negligibly affected by reduced resting P_{O₂} within the normal range.

We demonstrate that $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is inversely related to lung volume during stage 1 of apnea as a result of the greater reduction in alveolar P_{O₂} in poorly inflated lungs per unit of O₂ transferred into the pulmonary capillaries. This analysis is consistent with the inverse correlation between $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ and lung volume [15], with the view that active upper airway closure maintains lung volume and slows $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ [27,28], and with our recent report that the application of continuous positive airway pressure effectively slows $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ in lambs [29]. However, once stage 2 begins, the blood becomes the principal source of O₂ and thus the only store which influences $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$.

A novel finding from our study is that reduced resting mixed-venous saturation, caused by either a reduced cardiac output or reduced hemoglobin content, strongly elevates peak $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$, independent of metabolic O₂ consumption. We show that reduced resting mixed-venous saturation accelerates $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ via an increase in the peak value of $\beta Hb_{O_2} \times \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$; in other words, low mixed-venous saturation provides for a greater pulmonary O₂ uptake even in the presence of a developing arterial hypoxemia, and thereby increases $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. A role for hemoglobin in determining $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is consistent with the finding that elevated hemoglobin content in adults slows $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea [21]. In contrast, blood transfusion to raise hemoglobin content in anemic preterm infants, a common clinical therapy, has little or no impact on the severity of apneic desaturation [30]. Our proposed explanation for the lack of benefit of raising hemoglobin content via transfusion is that it also reduces heart rate [30] and cardiac output. Thus, in the newborn, the rise in mixed-venous saturation expected after transfusion is counteracted by a tendency for mixed-venous saturation to fall as a result of reduced cardiac output. An investigation that failed to find an effect of cardiac output on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ [23] did not account for our

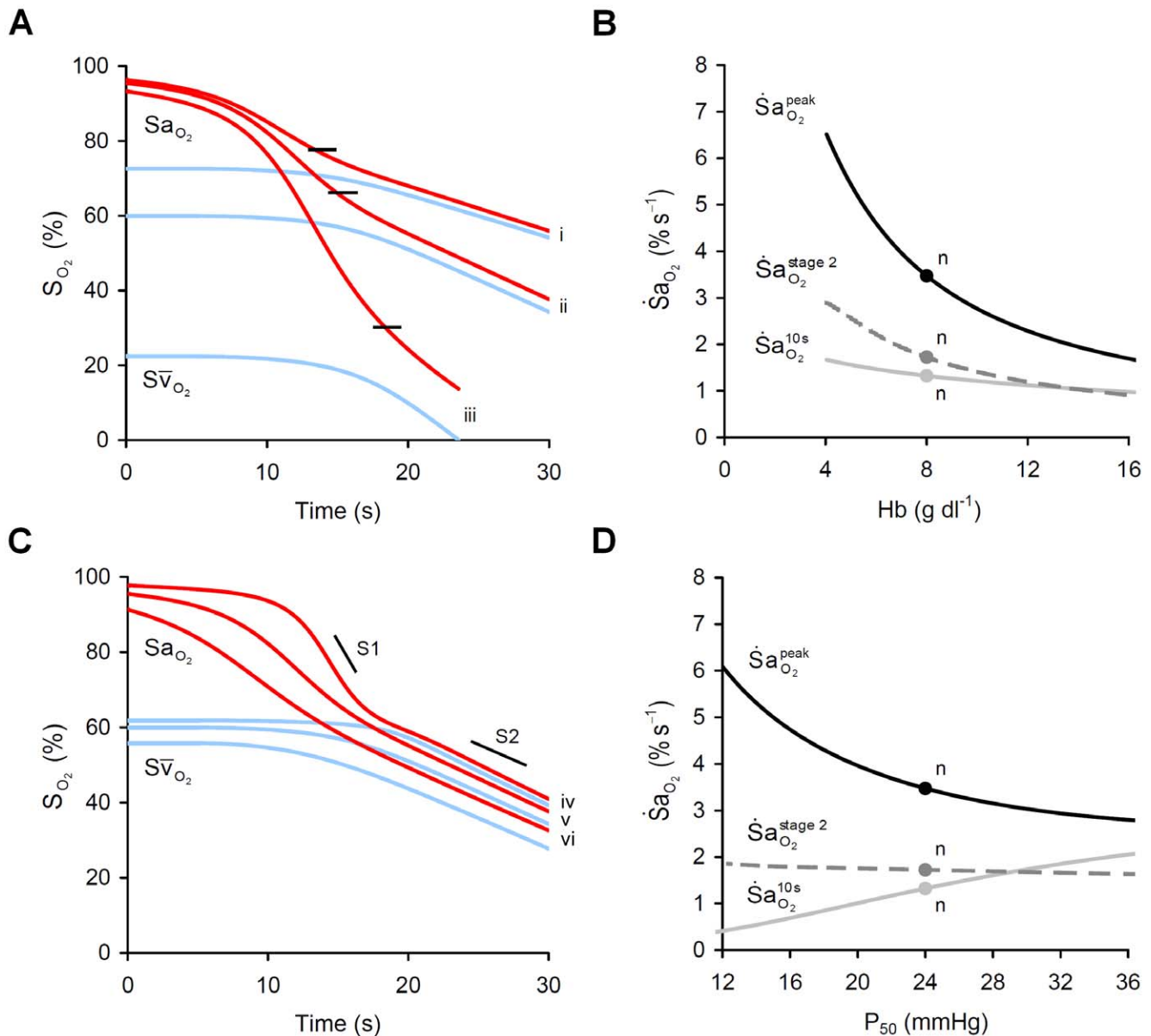


Figure 7. Impact of hemoglobin content (Hb) and O₂ affinity (P₅₀) on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. (A) Effect of three levels of Hb, (i) 12 g dl⁻¹, (ii) 8 g dl⁻¹ and (iii) 4 g dl⁻¹, on arterial (Sa_{O₂}) and mixed venous (Sv_{O₂}) O₂ desaturation during apnea. Note the fall in Sa_{O₂} at the inflection point (shown by short black lines). Note also that the reduced Hb has little impact on desaturation above Sa_{O₂} = 80%. (B) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in Hb. (C) Effect of three levels of P₅₀, (iv) 18 mmHg, (v) 24 mmHg, and (vi) 36 mmHg, on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. (D) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in P₅₀. n = 'normal' values; S1, stage 1 slope; S2, stage 2 slope.

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finding that pre-apneic and transient changes in cardiac output have opposing influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. Importantly, we find that a transient fall in cardiac output, characteristic of bradycardia during apnea in preterm infants [2], conserves alveolar O₂ via reduced $\dot{V}P_{O_2}$ and thus reduces $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ (see Equations 10 and 11). Consistent with this finding, apneic bradycardia prevents a rapid fall in Sa_{O₂} in adults [21].

We found that each of the factors examined exerts a unique and therefore recognisable influence on the time course of the desaturation process (Figure 10). Low alveolar P_{O₂} can be recognised by a left-shift of the desaturation trajectory so that desaturation begins sooner following the onset of apnea. A steep desaturation slope in the early phase of stage 1 points to a low

ratio of lung volume to metabolic O₂ consumption. In the late phase of stage 1, when desaturation proceeds in a linear fashion, a low resting mixed-venous saturation accelerates $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ and leaves the fingerprint of a low inflection point in arterial O₂ desaturation; low resting mixed-venous saturation reflects low cardiac output or hemoglobin content with respect to O₂ consumption. Lastly rapid $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 2 signifies a low total blood O₂ capacity with respect to O₂ consumption which would point to either low blood volume or anemia. The presence of a constant R-L shunt, while having no influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$, causes a parallel downwards shift in the desaturation trajectory. The unique impact of different factors on the desaturation curve may be used to guide preventive clinical intervention.

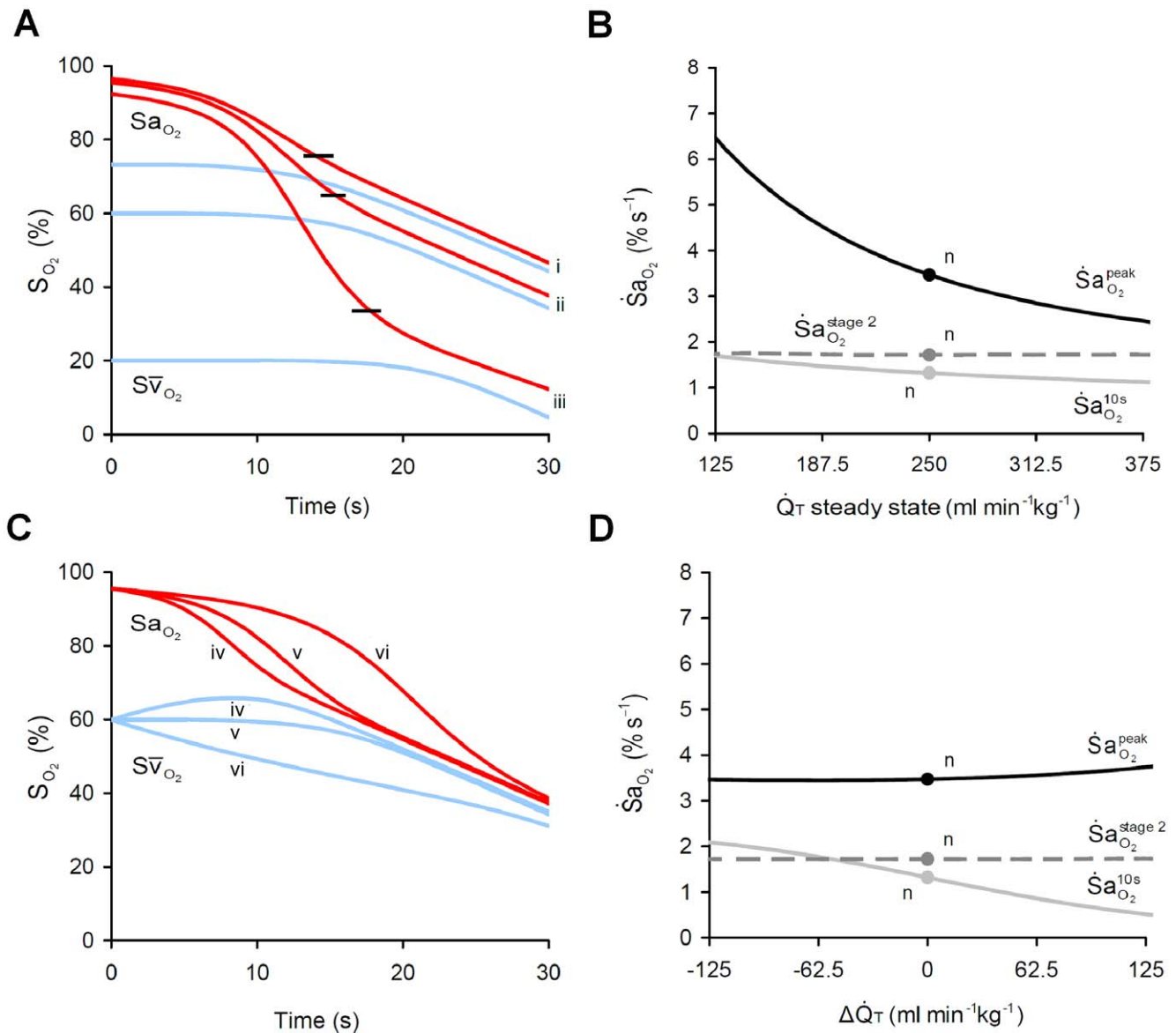


Figure 8. Impact of cardiac output (\dot{Q}_T) on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. (A) Effect of three levels of resting \dot{Q}_T , (i) 375 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹, (ii) 250 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹, and (iii) 125 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹, on arterial (Sa_{O_2}) and mixed venous ($S\bar{v}_{O_2}$) O₂ during apnea. Note that reduced \dot{Q}_T elevates Sa_{O_2} , associated with a reduction in resting $S\bar{v}_{O_2}$ and reduction in Sa_{O_2} at the stage 1–2 transition or inflection point (shown by short black lines). (B) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in \dot{Q}_T . Note the strong influence of \dot{Q}_T on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$, but negligible effect on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$ and $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2}$. (C) Simulations in (A) repeated for a step change in \dot{Q}_T at apnea onset by (iv) +125 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹ (e.g. tachycardia), (v) 0 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹, and (vi) -125 ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹ (e.g. bradycardia), following resting $\dot{Q}_T = 250$ ml min⁻¹kg⁻¹. Note that the transient effect of \dot{Q}_T is opposite to the resting effect of \dot{Q}_T on arterial desaturation during apnea. (D) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to acute changes in \dot{Q}_T during apnea. Note the strong influence of a step-change in \dot{Q}_T on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{10s}$, but negligible effect on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{peak}$ and $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2}$. n = ‘normal’ values.

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Clinical significance

We show theoretically that the lower lung volume [31] and higher metabolic O₂ consumption [32] of preterm compared to term infants predisposes to a rapid onset and progression of desaturation during apnea. Two reports offer support for this view. First, rapid desaturation occurs in infants with low functional residual capacity [15], a finding that may help to explain the more frequent O₂ desaturation events during active sleep [33] when functional residual capacity is reduced. Second, frequent desaturation is characteristic of preterm infants with bronchopulmonary dysplasia (BPD) [34] whose O₂ consumption is 25% greater [35], and functional residual capacity is 25% less [36], than in preterm

infants without BPD; Equations 11 and 12 predict that such differences increase both immediate and peak $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ by ~70%. In addition, hypoventilation and reduced resting PA_{O_2} in infants with BPD, as inferred from elevated PA_{CO_2} , [37], further increase desaturation at apnea onset. Our finding that each rise of 1% in inspired O₂ provides ~1 s of delay (right-shift) in the onset of apneic desaturation (Equation 15) may guide the titration of supplemental O₂ for the prevention of apneic hypoxemia while minimising the well known side-effects of long-term exposure to hyperoxia.

Our study has implications for the management of infants in clinical care. Metabolic O₂ consumption can be elevated after

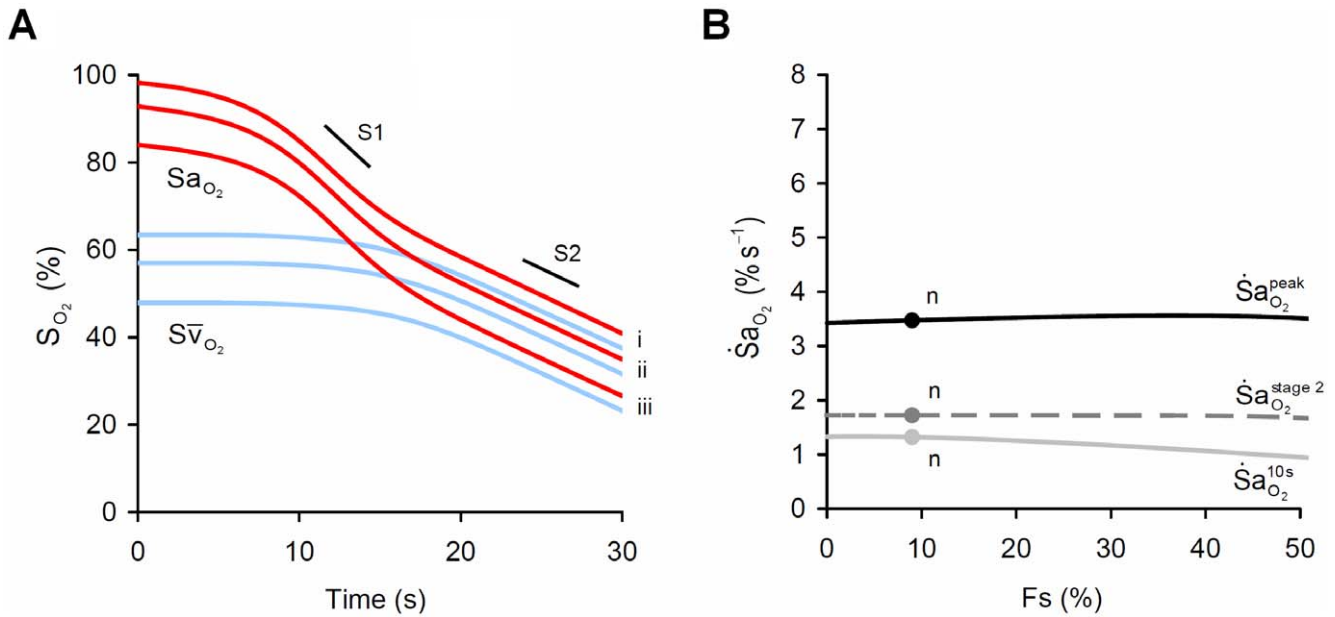


Figure 9. Impact of R-L shunt (Fs) on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. (A) Effect of three levels of Fs, (i) 0%, (ii) 15%, and (iii) 30%, on arterial (Sa_{O_2}) and mixed venous ($S\bar{v}_{O_2}$) O₂ during apnea. Note that resting R-L shunt fraction has a negligible impact on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea. (B) Sensitivity of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ to changes in Fs. n = ‘normal’ values; S1, stage 1 slope; S2, stage 2 slope. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g009

feeding [38], with reduced ambient temperature [39], and via the administration of methylxanthines [40]. Despite the success of methylxanthines in reducing the frequency of apnea and

bradycardia, such treatment has surprisingly little impact on hypoxemic episodes [41]; we suggest that the elevated O₂ consumption and the absence of bradycardia are likely to increase $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during those apneas that persist despite treatment. The severity of hypoxemic episodes is reduced by switching preterm infants from supine to prone [42], which may increase functional residual capacity [43] and improve diaphragm function, increase tidal volume and increase resting alveolar P_{O₂} [44]. Our finding that low cardiac output leads to increased $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during apnea leads to the suggestion that judicious adjustment of inotropic support in infants with cardiac abnormalities could improve resting mixed-venous saturation and reduce apneic hypoxemia.

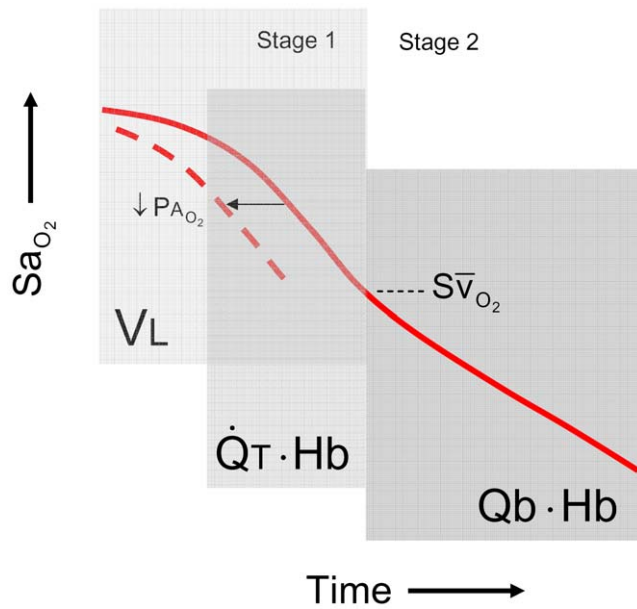


Figure 10. Conceptual framework depicting the temporal sequence of influence of the key cardiorespiratory factors on Sa_{O_2} . Note the regions of influence of lung volume (V_L), cardiac output (\dot{Q}_T) and blood volume (Q_b), each with respect to metabolic O₂ consumption (\dot{V}_{O_2}). Hemoglobin content (Hb) influences the latter phase of stage 1 as well as stage 2. The impact of reduced V_L is limited to stage 1, and blood volume to stage 2. Reduced $P_{A_{O_2}}$ causes a leftward shift in the desaturation trajectory. Note that the point of inflection at the transition between stages reveals the resting $S\bar{v}_{O_2}$. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g010

Hypoxemic events become less frequent between infancy and childhood, despite an unchanged apnea frequency [28], perhaps as a result of a fall in O₂ consumption per body weight. However, before this occurs, infants experience a period of susceptibility to rapid desaturation during apnea as a result of a fall in hemoglobin content and O₂ affinity [22] and a rise in O₂ consumption [45]. The implications for SIDS are obvious in that these changes coincide with the peak incidence for SIDS at 2–3 months [46]. SIDS also occurs disproportionately in preterm infants [46], who manifest severe anemia [22] and greater O₂ consumption. Infants resuscitated from apparent life threatening events have been found to have lower hemoglobin content [47], pointing to a potential role for rapid $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ in the progression of such events. It is possible that the rapid development of apneic hypoxemia initiates prolonged hypoxic cardiorespiratory depression that in turn leads to SIDS.

Conclusion

We have provided a mathematical framework for quantifying the relative importance of key cardiorespiratory factors on the rate of arterial O₂ desaturation during apnea, with particular relevance to preterm infants. For the first time we have demonstrated that each of the factors examined has a signature influence on the trajectory of desaturation, providing quantitative insight into the causes of rapidly developing hypoxemia during apnea.

Methods

Mathematical model

Lung compartment. For the lung, a single homogeneous compartment is assumed based on the model of Grodins et al [48]. Each equation describing changes in the alveolar partial pressure of each gas (G) is based on the conservation of mass (specifically, the pressure–volume product) and is expressed in terms of inspired and expired alveolar ventilation and transfer of gases into the pulmonary capillary:

$$\dot{P}_{A_G} = \frac{\dot{V}_I P_{I_G} - \dot{V}_E P_{A_G} - P_0 \dot{V}_{P_G}}{V_L} \quad (1)$$

where \dot{P}_{A_G} represents the rate of change of alveolar P_{O₂}, P_{CO₂}, and P_{N₂}; P_{I_G} represents the inspired alveolar partial pressure of each gas G; P₀ is atmospheric pressure converted from STP to BTP (863 mmHg); \dot{V}_{P_G} represents $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ and $-\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$, pulmonary gas uptake (STPD) for O₂ and CO₂ ($\dot{V}_{P_{N_2}}$ was neglected in this study for simplicity); \dot{V}_I and \dot{V}_E are inspired and expired alveolar ventilation (BTPS). Accounting for the difference in \dot{V}_E and \dot{V}_I due to a net pulmonary gas uptake into the pulmonary blood, yields:

$$\dot{V}_E = \dot{V}_I - \frac{P_0}{P_B - P_{vap}} \dot{V}_{P_{total}} \quad (2)$$

where P_B = barometric pressure (760 mmHg); P_{vap} = water vapour pressure (47 mmHg); $\dot{V}_{P_{total}}$ is the net pulmonary gas uptake, $\dot{V}_{P_{total}} = \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} - \dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$.

Since purely obstructive apneas are relatively rare in preterm infants [49], an unobstructed airway was chosen as the standard model in this study. In the current study it was assumed that lung volume did not fall during apnea, as in active sleep [24], when apneic desaturation events are most common [33]. With lung volume constant, conservation of mass requires that passive airflow into the unobstructed airway must occur in response to a net pulmonary gas uptake into the pulmonary blood [11]. To account for this effect, we can write:

$$\dot{V}_I = \frac{P_0}{P_B - P_{vap}} \dot{V}_{P_{total}} \quad (3)$$

Pilot simulations predicted that the volume of gas inflow during apnea is unlikely to exceed physiological deadspace. Thus, during apnea P_{I_G} is taken as P_{A_G} of the last exhaled breath prior to apnea onset.

For the current study we assumed diffusion equilibrium at the pulmonary capillaries, such that P_{A_G} = P_{C_G}. Gas uptake is determined from the Fick equation; specifically, pulmonary blood flow (\dot{Q}_p), and the difference between end capillary (C_{C_G}) and mixed venous (C_{v_G}) content:

$$\dot{V}_{P_G} = \dot{Q}_p (C_{C'_G} - C_{v_G}) \quad (4)$$

Utilising equations for R-L shunt, arterial content of each gas G is determined from its end capillary (C_{C_G}) and mixed venous (C_{v_G}) content, and pulmonary shunt fraction (F_s):

$$C_{A_G} = (1 - F_s) C_{C'_G} + (F_s) C_{v_G} \quad (5)$$

F_s defines the ratio of pulmonary blood flow to cardiac output, such that F_s = (1 - \dot{Q}_p)/ \dot{Q}_T .

Body compartment. Assuming that the P_{O₂} of the venous blood is equilibrated with the tissue P_{O₂}, the mass-balance equations are:

$$\dot{C}_{v_G} = \frac{\dot{Q}_T [C_{A_G}(t - T_a) - C_{v_G}] - \dot{V}_G}{Q_{v_G}} \quad (6)$$

where C_{A_G}(t - T_a) represents the gas content of O₂ and CO₂ in the arterioles; T_a is arterial transit time; \dot{V}_G represents \dot{V}_{O_2} and $-\dot{V}_{CO_2}$, the metabolic consumption of O₂ and production of CO₂; Q_{v_G} represents Q_{v_{O₂}} and Q_{v_{CO₂}} the combined venous/tissue volumes for O₂ and CO₂.

Blood O₂ stores were partitioned by assigning blood volume (Q_b) to arterial (25%) and venous (75%) compartments [50] and they were modelled assuming an entirely unmixed arterial compartment, and an entirely mixed and homogenous venous compartment. The arterial transit time (T_a) is constrained by the arterial volume (Q_a) by the relationship T_a = Q_a/Q_T. The body compartment volume Q_{v_{O₂}} is taken as the venous volume. Q_{v_{CO₂}}, the effective venous/tissue volume for CO₂ is taken as the same value for Q_{v_{O₂}}, based on published data (see Methods – Derivation of equations). Physiologically this represents no additional contribution of a specific tissue reservoir for CO₂ within the time frame of apnea.

To characterise the O₂-dissociation curve we used a modified form of the equation of Severinghaus [51]. We re-expressed the equation with respect to the partial pressure at 50% (P₅₀) and at 90% (P₉₀) saturation:

$$S_{O_2} = 100 [k_2 (P_{O_2}^3 + k_1 P_{O_2})^{-1} + 1]^{-1} \quad (7)$$

where k₁ = (9P₅₀³ - P₉₀³)/(P₉₀ - 9P₅₀) and k₂ = P₅₀³ + k₁P₅₀. Values for P₅₀ (24.0 mmHg) and P₉₀ (53.6 mmHg), were obtained from the data of Delivoria-Papadopoulos [22] for a 9–10 wk-old preterm infant. O₂ content (C_{O₂}, ml ml⁻¹) includes that bound to hemoglobin (Hb, g ml⁻¹) and that dissolved in plasma:

$$C_{O_2} = 1.36 \text{ Hb} (S_{O_2}/100) + 0.00003 P_{O_2} \quad (8)$$

The relationship between CO₂ content (C_{CO₂}) and P_{CO₂} was assumed linear:

$$C_{CO_2} = \beta b_{CO_2} P_{CO_2} + k_{CO_2} \quad (9)$$

where $\beta b_{CO_2} = 0.0048 \text{ ml ml}^{-1} \text{ mmHg}^{-1}$ and k_{CO₂} = 0.364 ml ml⁻¹ as adapted for STPD from Grodins et al. [52].

Simulations were performed using software written in MATLAB (The Mathworks; Natick, MA).

Theory

A general equation. In an earlier study we developed a general relationship that describes the factors influencing the magnitude of $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ at any instant in time during apnea [12]:

$$\dot{S}a_{O_2} = \frac{\beta b_{O_2} P_0 \dot{Q}_T}{V_L} (Sa_{O_2} - S\bar{v}_{O_2}) \quad (10)$$

where βb_{O_2} is the capacitance co-efficient of blood for O₂. To specifically demonstrate the role of gas exchange, it is more useful to represent $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ in terms of $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$. Using Equation 1 for O₂ under conditions of apnea ($\dot{V}_I, \dot{V}_E = 0$), assuming P_{A_{O₂}} = P_{A_{O₂}}, and

using $\dot{S}a_{O_2} = \beta_{Hb_{O_2}} \dot{P}_{A_{O_2}}$, reveals:

$$\dot{S}a_{O_2} = \frac{\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} P_0}{V_L} \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} \quad (11)$$

where $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$ (% mmHg⁻¹) is defined as the slope of the O₂-dissociation curve, specifically regarding end-capillary P_{O₂} with respect to S_{O₂}. It is clear from Equation 11 that $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is directly proportional to the product $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} \times \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$, which both vary substantially during apneic arterial desaturation. Although Equations 10 and 11 are useful conceptually, values for (S_{a_{O₂} - S \bar{v}_{O_2}) or $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ throughout apnea are unknown, and thus $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is not simple to predict explicitly.}

Special cases. The original framework to understand factors influencing $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ was based on the assumption that $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} = \dot{V}_{O_2}$ [10,23] which does not hold true during apnea [11,12]. However, such an assumption is valid prior to any substantial fall in S_{a_{O₂}, and as therefore useful to explicitly describe $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ immediately upon apnea onset ($\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{onset}$):}

$$\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{onset} = \frac{\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} P_0}{V_L} \dot{V}_{O_2} \quad (12)$$

Notably, Equation 12 demonstrates that for any level of \dot{V}_{O_2} and V_L, $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{onset}$ is intimately related to $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$. Consequently, $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{onset}$ increases dramatically with reduced resting P_{A_{O₂} (Figure 11).}

Although no simple expression could be written to describe $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ explicitly for stage 1, we derived an expression for $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 2 (see Methods – Derivation of equations), given by:

$$\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2} = \frac{\dot{V}_{O_2}}{1.36\ Hb\ Qb + \frac{V_L}{\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} P_0}} \quad (13)$$

Since the total blood O₂ capacity (1.36 Hb Qb) is much greater

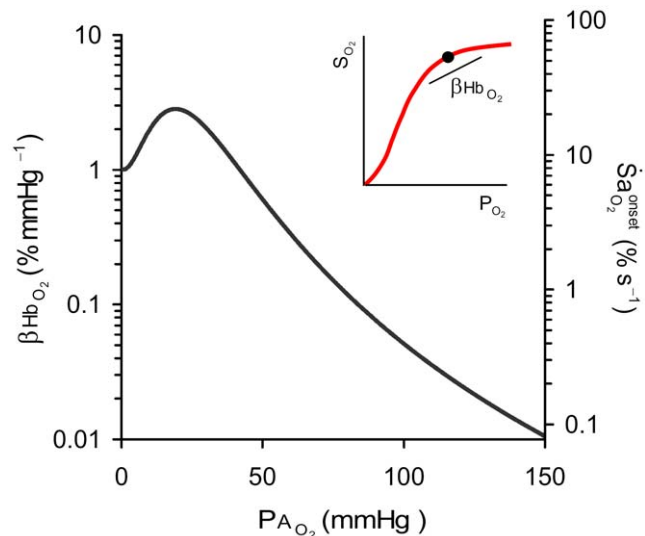


Figure 11. Relationship between the slope of the oxy-hemoglobin dissociation curve and alveolar P_{O₂}. Note that reduced alveolar P_{O₂} (P_{A_{O₂}) causes a substantial increase in the slope of the oxy-hemoglobin dissociation curve ($\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$; see inset) and in $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ at apnea onset ($\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{onset}$; based on Equation 12). doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000588.g011}

than V_L/($\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} P_0$), $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2}$ is determined principally by (1.36 Hb Qb) with negligible influence coming from lung volume (V_L) and the slope of the O₂-dissociation curve ($\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$), as well as $\dot{Q}T$. Using the values for the preterm infant in Table 2 and maximum $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} = 2.8\% \text{ mmHg}^{-1}$, Equation 13 predicts that $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2} = 1.8\% \text{ s}^{-1}$. The little remaining $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ during stage 2 can be found by combining Equations 11 and 13:

$$\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} = \frac{V_L / (\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} P_0)}{1.36\ Hb\ Qb + V_L / (\beta_{Hb_{O_2}} P_0)} \dot{V}_{O_2} \quad (14)$$

Equation 14 predicts that $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} = 8.5\%$ of its resting value during stage 2. Notably, $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ is increased by reducing Hb and Qb; the greater $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ and thus a greater rate of alveolar O₂ depletion with reduced blood O₂ capacity (1.36 Hb Qb) will increase $\dot{S}a_{O_2}^{stage\ 2}$.

How can we reconcile that Equation 13 shows that V_L no longer influences $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 2, when the general equation (Equation 11) implies that reduced V_L will accelerate $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ throughout apneic desaturation? Equation 14 reveals that during stage 2, elevated V_L also acts to increase $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$; thus nearly entirely offsetting the direct influence on $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$. The same applies for reduced $\beta_{Hb_{O_2}}$, which acts to elevate $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ and therefore no longer accelerates $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ during stage 2.

Derivation of equations

Here we derive the explicit equations used within the current study to encapsulate key relationships pertaining to gas exchange and arterial desaturation during apnea.

Stage 2 arterial O₂ desaturation. This section details the derivation of an explicit equation to predict the rate of both arterial and venous desaturation during the severe desaturation of stage 2, a phase where $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ is substantially reduced below \dot{V}_{O_2} and both S_{a_{O₂} and S \bar{v}_{O_2} fall at the same rate. Ignoring dissolved plasma O₂, consideration of Equation 1 for O₂ and assuming $\dot{S}a_{O_2} = \dot{S}\bar{v}_{O_2}$ yields:}

$$\dot{S}a_{O_2} = \frac{\dot{V}_{O_2} - 1.36\ Hb\ \dot{Q}T(Sa_{O_2}(t - T_a) - S\bar{v}_{O_2})}{1.36\ Hb\ Qv} \quad (15)$$

By substituting the following relationships into Equation 15: (S_{a_{O₂}(t - T_a) - S \bar{v}_{O_2}) = (S_{a_{O₂} - S \bar{v}_{O_2}) + $\dot{S}a_{O_2} T_a$; T_a = Q_a/Q_T; Q_b = Q_a + Q_v; $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}} = 1.36\ Hb\ \dot{Q}T(Sa_{O_2} - S\bar{v}_{O_2})$; it can be shown that $\dot{S}a_{O_2}$ is directly proportional to the difference between \dot{V}_{O_2} and $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$, where:}}

$$\dot{S}a_{O_2} = \frac{\dot{V}_{O_2} - \dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}}{1.36\ Hb\ Qb} \quad (16)$$

Combining Equations 11 and 16 yields Equation 13.

Estimation of effective blood volume for CO₂. Using the same methodology as described above, the ratio of $\dot{C}\bar{v}_{O_2}$ to $\dot{C}\bar{v}_{CO_2}$ during stage 2 can be used to estimate the ratio of Q_{b_{CO₂} to Q_{b_{O₂}. $\dot{C}\bar{v}_{O_2}$ and $\dot{C}\bar{v}_{CO_2}$ can be found using:}}

$$\dot{C}a_G = \dot{C}\bar{v}_G = - \frac{\dot{V}_G}{Qb_G + \frac{V_L}{\beta_G P_0}} \quad (17)$$

where Q_{b_{O₂} and Q_{b_{CO₂} are the effective blood volumes for O₂/}}

CO₂; βb_{CO_2} is the capacitance coefficient for CO₂. Neglecting pulmonary gas exchange, combining Equation 17 for O₂ and CO₂ gives:

$$\frac{Qb_{CO_2}}{Qb_{O_2}} = -\frac{\dot{C}\bar{v}_{O_2}}{\dot{C}\bar{v}_{CO_2}} \frac{\dot{V}_{CO_2}}{\dot{V}_{O_2}} \quad (18)$$

Equation 18 permitted the calculation of $Q_{V_{CO_2}}/Q_{V_{O_2}}$ based on published data [53; their Figure 3] where during apnea the rate of rise in $\dot{C}\bar{v}_{CO_2}$ is very close to the rate of fall in the product of $\dot{C}\bar{v}_{O_2}$ and the respiratory exchange ratio (RER); using $-\dot{C}\bar{v}_{O_2}/\dot{C}\bar{v}_{CO_2} = 1.29$ from their data, and assuming resting RER = 0.8, we find that $Q_{V_{CO_2}}/Q_{V_{O_2}} = 1.03$ or approximately 1. Thus $Q_{V_{CO_2}}/Q_{V_{O_2}}$ is assumed to be 1.

Stage 1 hypercapnia. Here we develop a relationship to describe the time-course of alveolar/arterial hypercapnia during stage 1 for CO₂. Using Equation 1 for CO₂, taking $\dot{V}_I, \dot{V}_E = 0$, gives the relationship $\dot{P}_{A_{CO_2}} = P_0 \dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}/VL$. Substituting the steady-state Fick equation, $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}} = \beta b_{CO_2} \dot{Q}_T (P_{A_{CO_2}} - P_{V_{CO_2}})$, assuming alveolar-arterial equilibrium ($P_{A_{CO_2}} = P_{A_{CO_2}}$), using $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}} = \dot{V}_{CO_2}$ under resting conditions, assuming that $P_{V_{CO_2}}$ is constant, and solving for $P_{A_{CO_2}}$ yields:

$$P_{A_{CO_2}} = P_{V_{CO_2}} - \frac{\dot{V}_{CO_2}}{\beta b_{CO_2} \dot{Q}_T} e^{-\frac{\beta b_{CO_2} P_0 \dot{Q}_T}{VL} t} \quad (19)$$

Calculating the rate of rise in $P_{A_{CO_2}}$ ($\dot{P}_{A_{CO_2}}$) by taking the derivative gives:

$$\dot{P}_{A_{CO_2}} = \frac{P_0 \dot{V}_{CO_2}}{VL} e^{-\frac{\beta b_{CO_2} P_0 \dot{Q}_T}{VL} t} \quad (20)$$

Equations 19 and 20 describe the slowing of $\dot{P}_{A_{CO_2}}$ from the initial rate $\dot{P}_{A_{CO_2}} = P_0 \dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}/VL$ as $P_{A_{CO_2}}$ rises towards $P_{V_{CO_2}}$. Specifically, the time constant $\tau = VL/(\beta b_{CO_2} P_0 \dot{Q}_T)$ demonstrates that high βb_{CO_2} causes a rapid slowing of $\dot{V}_{P_{CO_2}}$ and hence of $\dot{P}_{A_{CO_2}}$ as the arterial value approaches venous value. Indeed, fitting an exponential curve to the $P_{A_{CO_2}}$ trace (Figure 2) during the first 5 s of apnea yielded a rapid time constant of 1.26 s, a value close to that predicted by $VL/(\beta b_{CO_2} P_0 \dot{Q}_T)$. The corollary is that the low value of βb_{O_2} prevents the slowing of $\dot{V}_{P_{O_2}}$ as desaturation progresses, giving rise to a rapid $P_{A_{O_2}}$ decline and thus rapid arterial desaturation. Likewise, further reducing βb_{O_2} by lowering hemoglobin content potentiates such effect.

Impact of supplemental O₂. The delay (right-shift) in arterial desaturation during apnea with increasing supplemental O₂ ($\Delta P_{I_{O_2}}$) can be predicted explicitly. Using Equation 1 for O₂ under the conditions of apnea, and assuming $\Delta P_{I_{O_2}} = \Delta P_{A_{O_2}}$, the delay (Δt) in arterial desaturation is given by:

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta P_{I_{O_2}} VL}{P_0 \dot{V}_{O_2}} \quad (21)$$

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SAS PJB. Performed the experiments: SAS. Analyzed the data: SAS BAE MRD MHW PJB. Wrote the paper: SAS BAE VJK MRD MHW PJB. Designed and implemented the model: SAS VJK MRD MHW.

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